

## THE UPTAKE AND METABOLISM OF DISSOLVED AMINO ACIDS BY BIVALVE LARVAE

DONAL T. MANAHAN

*N.E.R.C. Unit of Marine Invertebrate Biology, Marine Science Laboratories,  
Menai Bridge, Anglesey, North Wales LL59 5EH, U. K.*

### ABSTRACT

The rates of uptake and metabolism of  $^{14}\text{C}$ -labeled glycine and alanine from sea water into larval oysters, *Crassostrea gigas* (Thunberg) and mussels, *Mytilus edulis* L. were determined. Kinetic studies showed that both species have a  $K_t$  value of 3–4  $\mu\text{M}$ , indicating that bivalve larvae have amino acid transport mechanisms that function efficiently in natural sea water. The  $K_t$  values for larvae are similar to those reported for adult bivalves. However, larvae take up dissolved amino acids at approximately ten times the rate reported for adult bivalves on a gram dry weight basis. This difference in uptake capacity presumably reflects the greater absorptive surface area to volume ratio of a larva. Rates of metabolism of absorbed amino acids by larvae were also rapid. Following a 100 min exposure, oyster larvae incorporated 47% of the glycine into protein and 38% was produced as  $\text{CO}_2$ . In comparison to adults, larval bivalves have a more rapid weight-specific uptake and faster rate of utilizing absorbed amino acids. Dissolved nutrients may be of vital importance to larvae when particulate food is scarce since they are often provided with minimal food reserves by the parent.

### INTRODUCTION

The possibility that dissolved organic material (DOM) in sea water may contribute to the nutrition of marine invertebrates is an attractive idea, since dissolved organic carbon (circa 3 mg C/l; Williams, 1975) is present at concentrations approximately ten times that of particulate organic carbon (circa 0.2 mg C/l; Parsons, 1975). During this century there have been many studies on the uptake of DOM directly from sea water by marine invertebrates (see reviews by Krogh, 1931; Jørgensen, 1976; Stewart, 1979; Stephens, 1981). Studies to date have demonstrated that  $^{14}\text{C}$ -labeled substrates, such as amino acids and sugars, are removed from dilute solution in sea water by soft-bodied marine invertebrates and that uptake occurs across the body wall or via specialized organs such as the ctenidia of molluscs. The relationship between uptake and substrate concentration is saturable, indicating a carrier-mediated process typical of active transport systems.

Nearly all of the studies examining the role of DOM in animal nutrition have been carried out using adult invertebrates. However, there are some reports that DOM can be utilized by larval forms. For example, embryos of the ophiuroid *Ampipholis squamata* have a greater capacity for assimilating dissolved glycine and glucose into their tissues than do adult ophiuroids (Fontaine and Chia, 1968). Larvae of the polychaete worm *Nereis virens* absorb 200 times more amino acid per gram

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Present address: Department of Developmental and Cell Biology, University of California, Irvine, California 92717, U.S.A.

Abbreviations: DOM—dissolved organic material.

wet weight than adults (Bass *et al.*, 1969). Reish and Stephens (1969) carried out a detailed investigation on the relationship between body size and the rate of glycine uptake by the polychaete, *Neanthes arenacoedentata*. The linear relation between log uptake and log wet body weight suggested that uptake is dependent upon surface area. Significantly, these authors also found that non-feeding larval stages absorbed glycine at a rate 3–5 times that of feeding stages. Larvae of the bivalve *Macra* sp. take up  $^{14}\text{C}$ -glucose (Crane *et al.*, 1957) and larvae of the Pacific oyster *Crassostrea gigas* have been shown to take up an undefined  $^{14}\text{C}$ -labeled algal exudate from sea water (Fankboner and deBurgh, 1978). Rice *et al.* (1980) demonstrated that larvae of the European oyster *Ostrea edulis* absorb dissolved amino acids.

Although there is evidence that bivalve larvae can take up DOM, the contribution of this pathway to their nutritional requirements remains obscure. Manahan and Crisp (1982) demonstrated that the velum of a bivalve larva is capable of absorbing dissolved amino acids directly from sea water. Since the velum presents a large surface area for absorption of dissolved nutrients, bivalve larvae are anatomically well adapted to benefit from this type of assimilation. In this report, I describe kinetic and time course studies on the rates of uptake and metabolism of  $^{14}\text{C}$ -labeled amino acids by veligers and pediveligers of the Pacific oyster, *Crassostrea gigas* (Thunberg), and by veligers of the mussel, *Mytilus edulis* L.

## MATERIALS AND METHODS

### *Animals*

The routine rearing of larvae was carried out as described by Loosanoff and Davis (1963). Two batches of oyster larvae were used. The *C. gigas* pediveligers were supplied by the Fisheries Experimental Station, Conway, North Wales, where they had been reared at 25°C and a salinity of 25‰. A second batch of *C. gigas* larvae was spawned and reared at Menai Bridge for 20 days (25°C; 32‰) until the larvae had reached the late veliger stage of 300  $\mu\text{m}$  shell length. *M. edulis* larvae were grown at 15°C and 32‰ for 50 days; by then all the larvae had reached the eyed stage.

### *Incubation media*

All glassware was sterilized either by autoclaving at 120°C for 20 min, or by heat-sterilization at 150°C overnight. Plastic sieves used to handle the larvae were pasteurized at 60°C overnight. For experiments, larvae were placed in sterile-filtered (0.2  $\mu\text{m}$  Millipore) sea water at the appropriate temperature and salinity. The labeled amino acids L-(U- $^{14}\text{C}$ ) alanine (172 mCi/mmol) or (U- $^{14}\text{C}$ ) glycine (118 mCi/mmol) were added to give the required test concentrations.

### *Kinetic and time course experiments*

Larvae used in uptake experiments were siphoned onto a 45  $\mu\text{m}$  mesh screen to select for uniform size. The larvae were blotted to remove adherent fluid, washed three times with 100 ml of sterile-filtered sea water, and distributed into glass vials at a density of about 40/ml. Two experiments were carried out in parallel for each group of larvae, *C. gigas* pediveligers and *M. edulis* veligers. (a) For kinetic experiments, larvae were exposed for the shortest practicable period (5 min) to a  $^{14}\text{C}$ -labeled amino acid ranging in concentration from 0.1  $\mu\text{M}$  to 10  $\mu\text{M}$ ; (b) in time course experiments, the larvae were exposed to circa 0.5  $\mu\text{M}$   $^{14}\text{C}$ -labeled substrate for 100 min. Separate vials of larvae were harvested at 0, 10, 20, 40, 60, 80, and

100 min to measure the  $^{14}\text{C}$ -label in the larvae. In parallel time course experiments, the production of  $^{14}\text{CO}_2$  by oyster larvae was measured.

#### *Measurement of $^{14}\text{CO}_2$ production*

Actively swimming bivalve larvae spend periods of time with their vela close to the sea water/air interface. During this behavior, known as "rafting," any volatile constituent containing  $^{14}\text{C}$  might pass directly from the larva into the air. Respired  $^{14}\text{CO}_2$  could thus be underestimated in samples of medium taken at the end of the experiment. Therefore, a system was developed to trap all the  $^{14}\text{CO}_2$  produced. Larvae were placed in a 2 ml glass vial which was glued to the base of a 15 ml glass vial. One ml of 10% KOH was pipetted onto the base of the 15 ml vial. The system was sealed by placing a teflon Suba Seal into the opening of the 15 ml vial. One such  $^{14}\text{CO}_2$  trapping system was set up for each of the 21 determinations made during a 100 min time course experiment. At a given time interval, 0.5 ml of HCl was injected through the Suba Seal into the 2 ml vial containing the larvae, thereby stopping the experiment and increasing the acidity of the sea water to pH 1–2. Any  $^{14}\text{CO}_2$  present was driven off and trapped in the 10% KOH during the following 16–24 h; thereafter, the vial was opened and the larvae in each one counted. Data could then be expressed as cpm of  $^{14}\text{CO}_2$  produced per larva.

The efficiency of  $^{14}\text{CO}_2$  trapping was determined using radioactive bicarbonate standards. A series of  $^{14}\text{CO}_2$  trapping vials containing 1 ml of standard were set up and acidified. 0.5 ml samples of the initial 1 ml 10% KOH were taken from each vial at various time intervals. The KOH sample was placed in a scintillation vial containing 1 ml methanol and 10 ml Aquasol. The addition of methanol was important, as it prevented the formation of a precipitate when KOH was added directly to Aquasol. By 16–24 h, 95% of the  $^{14}\text{CO}_2$  was trapped.

#### *Determination of radioactivity in larvae*

At each sampling in the time course experiment, larvae were poured from the vial onto a 45  $\mu\text{m}$  mesh sieve and rinsed with 100 ml of sea water. In this condition, the larvae can be stored at 4°C on damp filter paper. Preliminary experiments showed that no decrease in radioactivity per larva occurred during a 5 h storage; in fact, not more than 2 h of storage was ever necessary. The sampling error (95% confidence limits/mean) for the 15 data points of these tests was 5–6% for both mussel and oyster larvae. Three samples of larvae from each sieve were placed on gridded Millipore filters (type: RAWG 02500) and each filter in turn placed on a glass slide and the larvae counted under a microscope. The larvae and filter were placed in a glass scintillation vial (teflon capped) and digested with 1 ml of Tissue Solubilizer (NCS, New England Nuclear) at 50°C overnight. Samples were then bleached to improve radioactive counting efficiency by incubation with 1 ml of 20% benzoyl peroxide in toluene at 50°C for 3 h. After cooling, 10 ml of Aquasol was added to each vial. All samples were stored in the dark for at least 16 h prior to counting. Quench correction was carried out by the addition of internal standards using  $^{14}\text{C}$ -hexadecane.

The uniform procedure used to prepare samples for radioactive counting, reduced any differences in quenching caused by digesting different numbers of larvae per sample. Knowing the total radioactivity per sample, the number of larvae in that sample, and the specific activity of the isotope, uptake rates could be expressed as grams  $^{14}\text{C}$ -labeled amino acid per larva.

TABLE I

Scheme for determining the percentage of <sup>14</sup>C in the lipid, protein, and small molecular weight (TCA soluble) fractions of bivalve larvae

Add 800 µl distilled H <sub>2</sub> O to freeze dried sample		
Homogenate		
Lipid	Protein	Total
3 × 100 µl replicate samples:	3 × 100 µl replicate samples:	Single 100 µl sample:
100 µl sample	100 µl sample	100 µl
+ 100 µl H <sub>2</sub> O	+ 100 µl H <sub>2</sub> O	+ 500 µl NCS
+ 250 µl CHCl <sub>3</sub>	+ 100 µl 15% cold TCA.	Tissue Solubilizer.
+ 500 µl CH <sub>3</sub> OH.	Shake 1 min.	Digest overnight.
Shake 1 min.	Stand at 4°C for 10 min.	
Stand at 4°C 10 min.	Centrifuge 8,000 g 1 min.	
Centrifuge 8,000 g for 1 min.	Remove all of supernatant.	
Removal 800 µl supernatant	Wash ppt. ×3 with 200 µl 5% TCA	
(cf. 950 added).	removing supernatant each time.	
800 µl supernatant	ppt. = Protein	
+ 200 µl CHCl <sub>3</sub>	+ 500 µl NCS Tissue Solubilizer.	
+ 200 µl H <sub>2</sub> O	Digest at room temperature overnight.	
Shake 1 min.		
Centrifuge 8,000 g 1 min.		
Remove top phase.		
Wash bottom phase ×3 with		
500 µl Folch rgt.		
Dry lower phase at 54°C		
Residue = LIPID		
+ 500 µl NCS Tissue Solubilizer.		
Digest at room temperature overnight.		

Biochemical fate of amino acid carbon

In the experiments determining radioactivity in larvae, there always remained a large surplus of larvae available for biochemical fractionation. These larvae were harvested at 10 and 100 min during the time course experiment described above, and were washed onto a GFC filter paper and freeze dried. Using methods modified from Holland and Gabbott (1971), homogenates of these larvae were quantitatively separated into lipids, proteins, and, by subtraction from the total, small molecular weight compounds and carbohydrates (TCA soluble, see Table I). After separation of the fractions, the amount of radioactivity in digests of the various fractions was determined. The total uptake of <sup>14</sup>C-labeled amino acid was measured by adding the observed <sup>14</sup>C incorporated in the tissue to the <sup>14</sup>CO<sub>2</sub> expired. The former could be proportioned into that metabolized into protein, lipid, and TCA soluble compounds.

Oxygen consumption

The rate of O<sub>2</sub> consumption by *C. gigas* larvae (300 µm shell length) at 21°C and 25‰ was measured with a Radiometer oxygen electrode. The method is described in detail by Davenport (1976).

## RESULTS

*Crassostrea gigas* pediveligers

## (a) Kinetics of glycine uptake

Figure 1 shows the effect of increasing substrate concentration on the rate of glycine uptake by *C. gigas* pediveligers. Glycine uptake is evidently concave to the

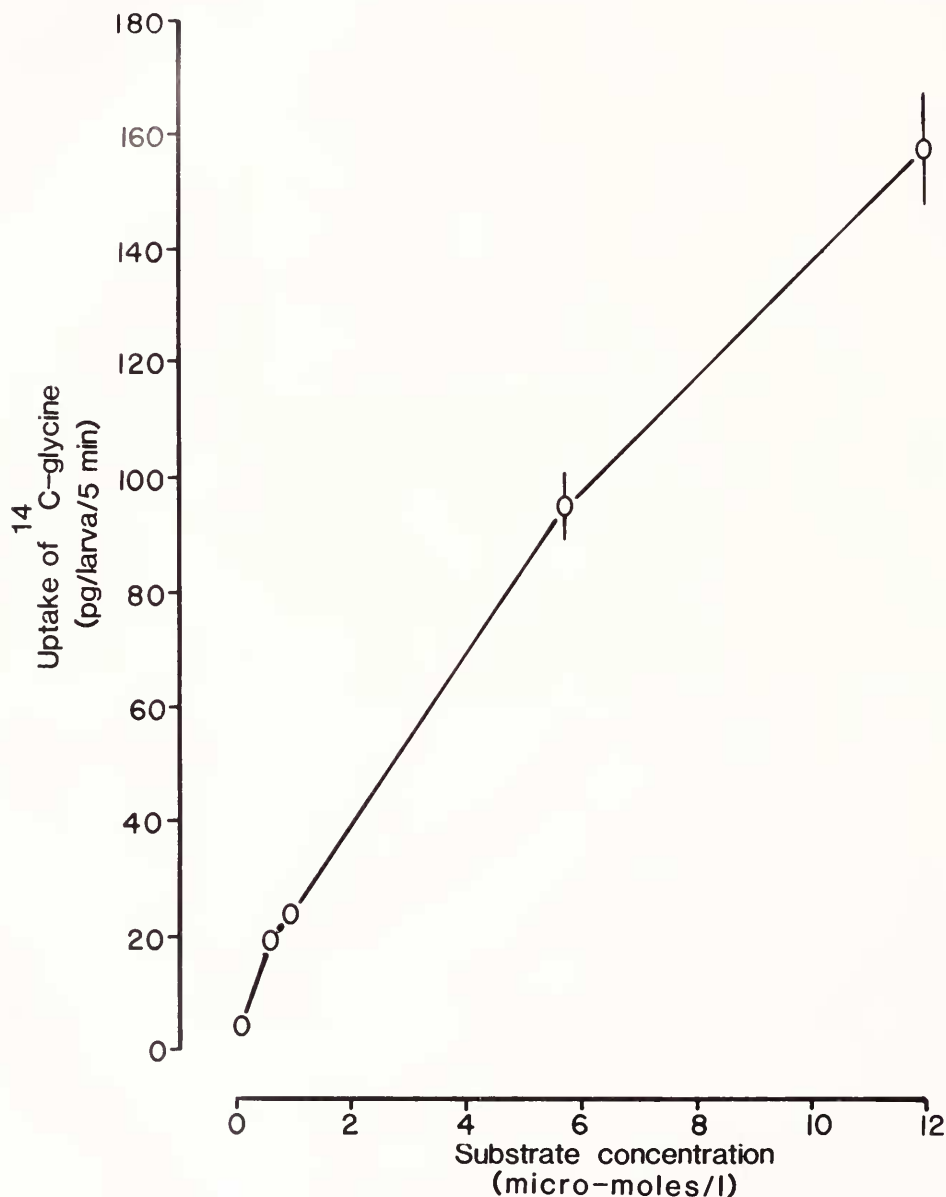


FIGURE 1. The uptake of  $^{14}\text{C}$ -glycine by *C. gigas* pediveligers at substrate concentrations ranging from  $0.1 \mu\text{M}$  to  $10 \mu\text{M}$ . Temperature =  $25^\circ\text{C}$ . Salinity =  $25\text{‰}$ . Data points are mean  $\pm$  S.E. for  $n = 3$ . Where no bar errors are shown on a data point, the bars lie within the graphical presentation of the point.



TABLE II

*Kinetic constants for amino acid transport by oyster (C. gigas) and mussel (M. edulis) larvae*

Species	Temp.	Salinity	Substrate	$K_t \pm \text{S.E.}$	$V_{\max}$
<i>C. gigas</i>	25°C	25‰	glycine	$3.7 \mu M \pm 1.0$	$1.8 \text{ ng larva}^{-1} \text{ hr}^{-1}$
<i>M. edulis</i>	15°C	32‰	L-alanine	$3.5 \mu M \pm 0.5$	$0.9 \text{ ng larva}^{-1} \text{ hr}^{-1}$

abscissa, and therefore appears to be saturable. A Michaelis-Menten analysis of uptake was made using Hofstee's (1959) linear transformation. The transport constant,  $K_t$ , is the substrate concentration at which uptake is experimentally determined to be half the maximum transport capacity of the system ( $1/2 V_{\max}$ ). Table II gives the kinetic data for *C. gigas* larvae. A low  $K_t$  of  $3.7 \mu M$  was obtained for glycine transport.

(b) *Time course of glycine metabolism*

The time course of  $^{14}\text{C}$ -glycine uptake from a concentration of  $0.59 \mu M$  is shown in Figure 2. Since the numbers of larvae used were in the order of 40/ml, a calculation based on the uptake rates given below shows that total larval uptake would not reduce the substrate concentration by more than 0.02%. The glycine concentration therefore remained virtually constant during the experiment and the linearity of the plots in Figure 2 is to be expected. Regression of uptake in the larva on time gave a rate of  $1.68 \text{ pg } ^{14}\text{C}\text{-glycine larva}^{-1} \text{ min}^{-1}$ ; glycine appeared as  $^{14}\text{CO}_2$  at a rate of  $1.02 \text{ pg } ^{14}\text{C}\text{-glycine larva}^{-1} \text{ min}^{-1}$ . The striking feature of these data is the rapid rate of  $^{14}\text{CO}_2$  production. A more complete picture of the fate of glycine after absorption by pediveligers is given in Table III. After 100 min exposure, 47% of the glycine carbon had been synthesized into protein and 38% appeared as  $^{14}\text{CO}_2$ . In this short time, less than 2% of the  $^{14}\text{C}$ -carbon was found in lipid. As the exposure time to glycine was increased for 10 to 100 min, the amount of glycine metabolized by the larva to lipid, protein, and  $\text{CO}_2$  continued to increase by about a factor of 10.

*Crassostrea gigas* veligers

Figure 3 shows the uptake of glycine by veligers from a concentration of  $0.69 \mu M$ .  $^{14}\text{CO}_2$  is also produced from glycine by veligers at a rapid rate of  $0.74 \text{ pg larva}^{-1} \text{ min}^{-1}$ , when compared to an uptake rate into the larva of  $1.22 \text{ pg } ^{14}\text{C}\text{-glycine larva}^{-1} \text{ min}^{-1}$ . Table IV gives the more detailed account of glycine metabolism by veligers. By 100 min, 16% of the  $^{14}\text{C}$ -label was found in protein and 33% had been recovered as  $\text{CO}_2$ . Lipid contained less than 1%.

*Mytilus edulis* veligers

(a) *Kinetics of alanine uptake*

Figure 4 shows the kinetic response of *M. edulis* larvae to increasing alanine concentrations. The kinetic constants obtained from a Hofstee plot of these data are given in Table II. A low  $K_t$  for alanine of  $3.5 \mu M$  was obtained, which is very similar to that of  $3.7 \mu M$  obtained for glycine uptake by oyster larvae.

(b) *Time course of alanine metabolism*

The uptake of alanine from a concentration of  $0.41 \mu M$  is shown in Figure 5. There are no data for  $^{14}\text{CO}_2$  production during this experiment. Table V gives the

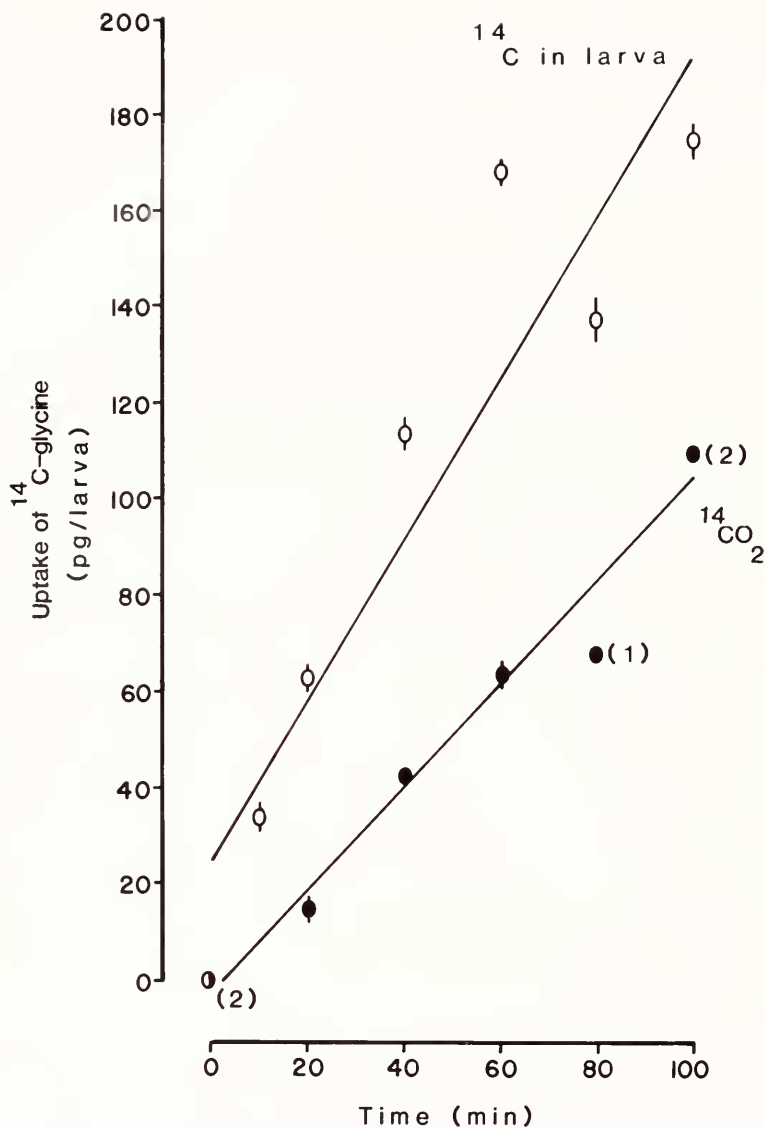


FIGURE 2. Time course of  $^{14}\text{C}$ -glycine uptake and oxidation by *C. gigas* pediveligers.  $^{14}\text{C}$ -glycine concentration =  $0.59 \mu\text{M}$ . Temperature =  $25^\circ\text{C}$ . Salinity = 25‰. Open circles represent  $^{14}\text{C}$  recovered in larvae. Closed circles represent  $^{14}\text{CO}_2$  produced by larvae. All data points are mean  $\pm$  S.E. for  $n = 3$ . Where  $n$  is less than 3, the number of replicates is given above the data point. Where no bar errors are shown on a data point, the bars lie within the graphical presentation of the point.

#### Regression equations

Treatment	<i>n</i>	<i>a</i>	<i>b</i> $\pm$ S.E.	<i>r</i> <sup>2</sup>
Uptake by larva	21	24.10	$1.68 \pm 0.15$	0.86
$^{14}\text{CO}_2$ production	17	-2.52	$1.02 \pm 0.07$	0.98

TABLE III

*The metabolism of  $^{14}\text{C}$ -glycine by C. gigas pediveligers*

Time		Metabolic fraction	
		(pg $^{14}\text{C}$ -gly/larva)	(% of total)
10 min	Total uptake	42.3	
	Lipid	0.9	2.1
	Protein	16.5	39.0
	$\text{CO}_2$	8.4	19.9
	TCA soluble	16.5	39.0
100 min	Total uptake	283.0	
	Lipid	4.2	1.5
	Protein	133.6	47.2
	$\text{CO}_2$	109.0	38.5
	TCA soluble	36.2	12.8

biochemical fate of  $^{14}\text{C}$ -alanine following assimilation. A similar pattern to that obtained for oyster larvae is evident. A greater percentage of the  $^{14}\text{C}$ -label was present in protein than in lipid, and the amount of assimilated  $^{14}\text{C}$ -alanine increases with exposure time.

#### *Oxygen consumption of Crassostrea gigas veligers*

The  $\text{O}_2$  consumption of *C. gigas* larvae (300  $\mu\text{m}$ ) was determined at an early stage of the investigation to be 6.6 nl and 9.5 nl  $\text{O}_2$  larva $^{-1}$  h $^{-1}$  for two replicate experiments carried out at 21°C. Assuming a  $Q_{10}$  of 2, this oxygen consumption would increase to 10.6 nl  $\text{O}_2$  larva $^{-1}$  h $^{-1}$  at 25°C, the temperature of the glycine uptake experiments. This figure accords well with an estimate of 9–11 nl  $\text{O}_2$  larva $^{-1}$  h $^{-1}$  for larvae of the European oyster *Ostrea edulis* at the same size (297  $\mu\text{m}$ ), based on the value quoted by Crisp (1976) of 5–6 ml  $\text{O}_2$  (g dry wt) $^{-1}$  h $^{-1}$ , and on Holland and Spencer's (1973) dry organic weight for a larva of this size (1.84  $\mu\text{g}$ ).

## DISCUSSION

#### *Rates of uptake of amino acids*

The kinetic data for oyster and mussel larvae (Table II) include a  $K_t$  of 3–4  $\mu\text{M}$  for each species. This low  $K_t$  indicates that bivalve larvae have amino acid transport mechanisms that function efficiently in natural sea water where the free amino acid concentrations lie in this order of magnitude (*e.g.*, North, 1975). The  $K_t$  values for the larvae are similar to those reported by Wright and Stephens (1978) for intact adult mussels, *Mytilus edulis* ( $K_t = 2$ –5  $\mu\text{M}$ ). Hence, both larval and adult bivalves are adapted to utilize dissolved amino acids in sea water.

However, an important difference in the rates of amino acid uptake can be shown by comparing alanine uptake by larvae and adults. Wright and Stephens (1978) report that a mussel weighing 5 g (wet wt minus shell) can accumulate amino acids from a micromolar solution at a rate of 2  $\mu\text{moles/h}$  at 20°C. Assuming 20% of the mussel's weight is dry organic weight, an adult could take up alanine at a rate of 178  $\mu\text{g}$  alanine (g dry wt) $^{-1}$  h $^{-1}$ . In this work, larvae of *M. edulis* were observed



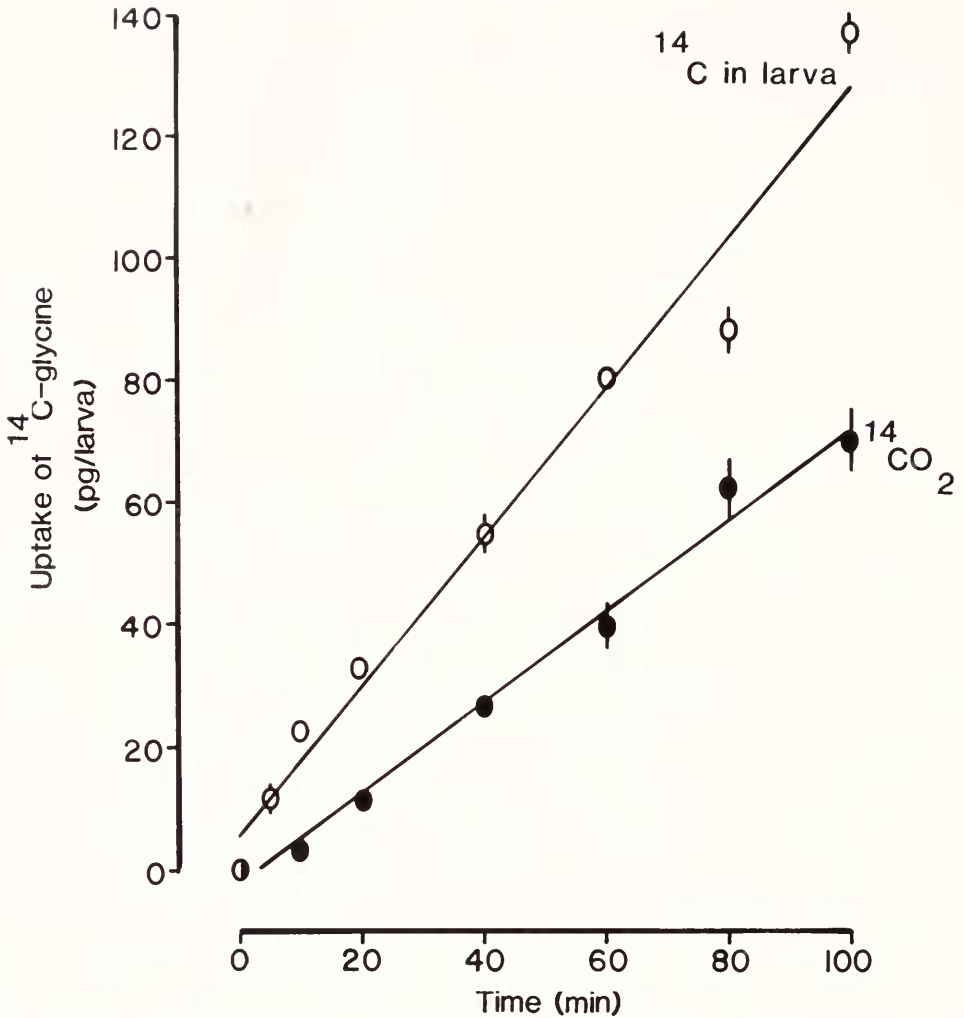


FIGURE 3. Time course of  $^{14}\text{C}$ -glycine uptake and oxidation by *C. gigas* veligers.  $^{14}\text{C}$ -glycine concentration =  $0.69 \mu\text{M}$ . Temperature =  $25^\circ\text{C}$ . Salinity = 32‰. Open circles represent  $^{14}\text{C}$  recovered in larvae. Closed circles represent  $^{14}\text{CO}_2$  produced by larvae. All data points are mean  $\pm$  S.E. for  $n = 3$ . Where no bar errors are shown on a data point, the bars lie within the graphical presentation of the point.

Regression equations				
Treatment	<i>n</i>	<i>a</i>	<i>b</i> $\pm$ S.E.	<i>r</i> <sup>2</sup>
Uptake by larva	24	5.48	$1.22 \pm 0.05$	0.97
$^{14}\text{CO}_2$ production	21	-2.32	$0.74 \pm 0.03$	0.96

to accumulate alanine from a micromolar solution at a rate of  $180 \text{ pg larva}^{-1} \text{ h}^{-1}$  at  $15^\circ\text{C}$ . Crisp (1976) recalculated the dry organic weight of a *M. edulis* larvae as  $0.2 \mu\text{g}$  from Zeuthen's (1947) values of nitrogen content. Taking this figure, a larva would accumulate  $0.9 \text{ mg alanine (g dry wt)}^{-1} \text{ h}^{-1}$  at  $15^\circ\text{C}$ . At  $20^\circ\text{C}$ , corresponding

TABLE IV

*The metabolism of  $^{14}\text{C}$ -glycine by *C. gigas* veligers*

Time		Metabolic fraction	
		(pg $^{14}\text{C}$ -gly/larva)	(% of total)
10 min	Total uptake	25.6	
	Lipid	0.1	0.004
	Protein	2.9	11.3
	$\text{CO}_2$	3.2	12.5
	TCA soluble	19.4	75.8
100 min	Total uptake	206.9	
	Lipid	1.1	0.5
	Protein	33.2	16.0
	$\text{CO}_2$	69.8	33.7
	TCA soluble	102.8	49.7

to Wright and Stephens' experiment, the rate would be higher. For example, assuming a  $Q_{10}$  of 2, a larva could take up  $1272 \mu\text{g}$  alanine  $(\text{g dry wt})^{-1} \text{h}^{-1}$  at  $20^\circ\text{C}$  compared to a value of  $178 \mu\text{g}$  alanine given above for the adult. Thus, on a relative weight basis, the larva is taking up alanine at a rate approximately one order of magnitude faster than that of the adult. Presumably this difference is a reflection of the greater absorption surface area to volume ratio of the larva.

#### *Rates of metabolism of absorbed amino acids*

Bamford and McCrea (1975) and Stewart and Bamford (1975) showed that in the adult cockle *Cerastoderma edule* and the clam *Mya arenaria* 95% of the labeled amino acid taken up remained unmetabolized after one hour of exposure, and in some cases it took up to 24 h for the major portion to be metabolized (e.g., Stewart, 1977). The data presented here show that in larvae, the time scale is much shorter. For instance, Table III shows that *C. gigas* pediveligers metabolize at least 61% of the absorbed  $^{14}\text{C}$ -glycine in just 10 min. Following 100 min exposure, only 12.8% of the  $^{14}\text{C}$ -labeled glycine remained in the TCA soluble fraction, 87.2% of the  $^{14}\text{C}$  appeared as lipid, protein, and  $^{14}\text{CO}_2$ .

The above studies show, not only that bivalve larvae have a transport system operating at a high affinity for absorbing amino acids at environmentally realistic concentrations, but also that, in comparison with adults, larvae have a more rapid weight-specific uptake, and a faster rate of metabolising these substrates.

#### *Contribution of amino acid uptake to energy and growth requirements*

Johannes *et al.* (1969) drew attention to the critical difference between an influx of radiolabeled substrate and a net entry of that substrate. Although the question of net flux has not been addressed in this study, Manahan *et al.* (1982) showed that adult mussels *M. edulis* are capable of net uptake of amino acids from concentrations as low as 38 nM. Recent work has shown a comparable picture with respect to net influx of amino acids in bacteria-free sea urchin larvae (Manahan *et al.*, 1983) and *C. gigas* larvae (unpublished data).

The uptake of dissolved organic nutrients by an organism has customarily been compared with its respiration rate (e.g., Stephens, 1964; Shick, 1975; Wright and

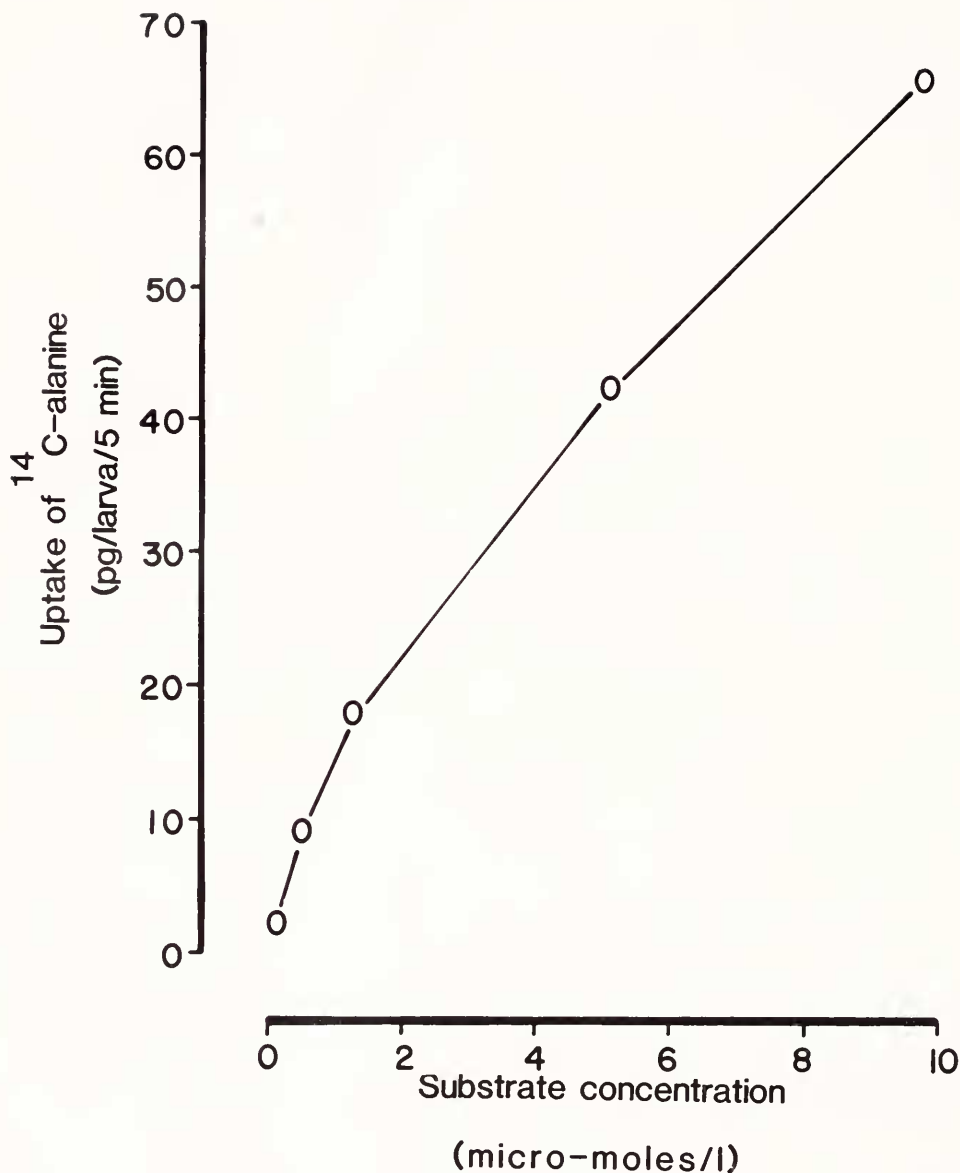


FIGURE 4. The uptake of  $^{14}\text{C}$ -alanine by *M. edulis* veligers at substrate concentrations ranging from  $0.1 \mu\text{M}$  to  $10 \mu\text{M}$ . Temperature =  $15^\circ\text{C}$ . Salinity = 32‰. Data points are mean  $\pm$  S.E. for  $n = 3$ . Where no bar errors are shown on a data point, the bars lie within the graphical presentation of the point.

Stephens, 1978). The rationale of this approach is that the dissolved organic substrates taken up can either themselves be oxidized, or can spare the animal's own energy reserves in providing energy for maintenance. This may be approximately true for full size adults without current reproductive expenditure, but it is manifestly inappropriate for growing larvae. The net growth efficiency, defined as rate of increase of biomass (or production, P) as a percentage of total energy requirements

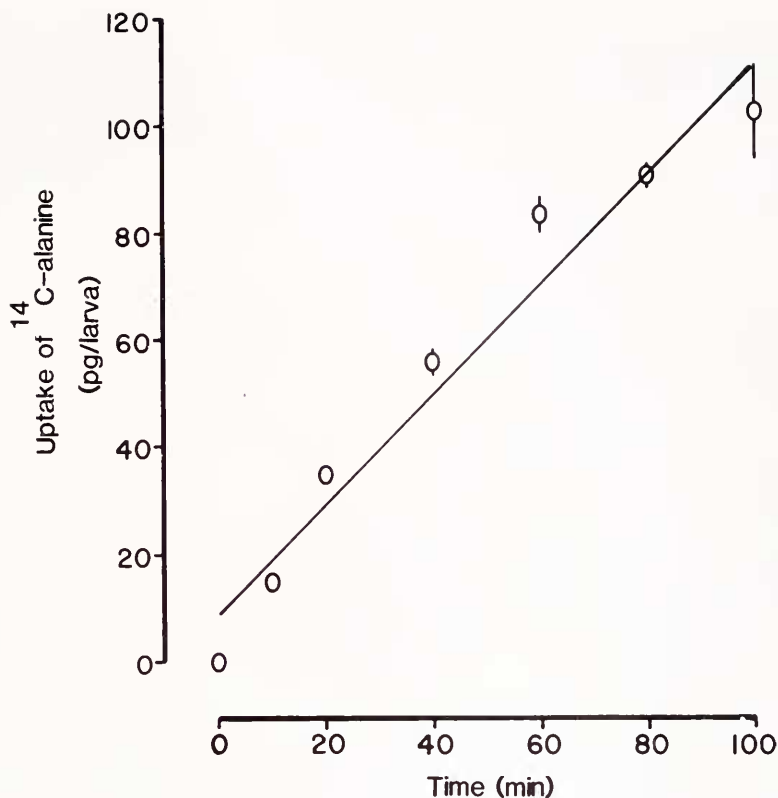


FIGURE 5. Time course of  $^{14}\text{C}$ -alanine uptake by *M. edulis* veligers.  $^{14}\text{C}$ -alanine concentration =  $0.41 \mu\text{M}$ . Temperature =  $15^\circ\text{C}$ . Salinity =  $32\text{‰}$ . Data points are mean  $\pm$  S.E. for  $n = 3$ . Where no bar errors are shown on a data point, the bars lie within the graphical presentation of the point.

(P + respiration, R), is high in marine invertebrate larvae, usually about 70% (Holland, 1978), whereas in a hypothetical non-growing non-reproducing adult it would be zero. Therefore it is important to consider the energy cost of growth as well as respiration in larvae although not, of course, the cost of reproduction.

Data on cost of growth in developing pelagic larvae are scanty, and none exist for *C. gigas* veligers. Fortunately, comprehensive measurements have been made on the growth of the European oyster *Ostrea edulis* (Holland and Spencer, 1973), over the whole larval period including the late veliger stage. The latter stage corresponds in size, morphology, and linear growth rate with the  $300 \mu\text{m}$  shell length *C. gigas* veligers used in this study and is therefore a very appropriate model. Table VI gives the rates of increase for each major biochemical component (Column I) for the  $297 \mu$  veliger of *O. edulis*. The total energy increase in the larva is computed as follows. Each component's (Column IV) daily percentage increase is multiplied by its respective weight per larva (Column II) and by its caloric content using values given by Crisp (1971). The results are the daily energy increases for each component, listed in Column V. These contributions are added to obtain the total figure of  $22.86 \times 10^{-4} \text{ cal larva}^{-1} \text{ day}^{-1}$ . To obtain the total energy requirements, the energy loss in respiration by *C. gigas* larvae must be added. The latter was obtained by multiplying the experimental value of  $10 \text{ nl O}_2 \text{ larva}^{-1} \text{ h}^{-1}$  ( $=240 \text{ nl}$

TABLE V

*The metabolism of  $^{14}\text{C}$ -alanine by M. edulis veligers*

Time		Metabolic fraction	
		(pg $^{14}\text{C}$ -ala/larva)	(% of total)
10 min	Total uptake	15.3	
	Lipid	0.2	1.3
	Protein	2.1	13.7
	$\text{CO}_2$	—	—
	TCA soluble	13.0	85.0
100 min	Total uptake	102.7	
	Lipid	1.0	1.0
	Protein	21.1	20.5
	$\text{CO}_2$	—	—
	TCA soluble	80.6	78.5

larva $^{-1}$  day $^{-1}$ ) by the accepted oxycaloric equivalent of 4.8 Kcal/l  $\text{O}_2$ . Thus, the total energy requirement arrived at for *C. gigas* is  $34.38 \times 10^{-4}$  cal larva $^{-1}$  day $^{-1}$ .

The energy contributed by uptake of dissolved amino acids will depend on the ambient concentrations to which larvae are exposed. These are likely to range from 0.6  $\mu\text{M}$  for surface waters to 6.0  $\mu\text{M}$  for sediment waters (Henrichs and Farrington, 1979). The latter concentration may be relevant as larvae approach settlement. The rate of glycine uptake at these concentrations is 0.26 ng and 1.2 ng larva $^{-1}$  h $^{-1}$  (Fig. 1). Glycine has a molar heat of combustion of 233 Kcal/mole, giving  $0.19 \times 10^{-4}$  and  $0.87 \times 10^{-4}$  cal larva $^{-1}$  day $^{-1}$ , respectively. The uptake of glycine at these two concentrations would represent 0.6% to 2.8% of the total energy required by the larva. As a percentage of the energy respired ( $11.52 \times 10^{-4}$  cal larva $^{-1}$  day $^{-1}$ ), the figures would clearly be larger, viz. 1.6% to 7.5%.

The other important aspect of uptake of dissolved nutrients is their contribution of material for growth. In the *C. gigas* pediveliger the percentage of glycine taken

TABLE VI

*Energy requirements of an oyster larva*

I Component	II Wt/larva ( $\mu\text{g}$ )	III % in 12 day-old fed larva (297 $\mu\text{m}$ )	IV Percentage increase/day	V Energy required (cal larva $^{-1}$ day $^{-1}$ )
Protein	1.09	59%	14%	$8.62 \times 10^{-4}$
Polysaccharide	0.20	11%	16%	$1.31 \times 10^{-4}$
Free reducing substances				
RNA	0.13	7%	18%	$2.21 \times 10^{-4}$
Phospholipid	0.42	23%	27%	$10.72 \times 10^{-4}$
Neutral lipid	1.84	100%	15%	$22.86 \times 10^{-4}$
Total organic	4.99	—	12%	—
Shell	6.83	—	14%	—
Total larva				$11.52 \times 10^{-4}$
Energy for respiration				$=34.38 \times 10^{-4}$



up which is incorporated into protein is 39% and 47% following a 10 min and 100 min exposure, respectively. Apart from loss as  $^{14}\text{CO}_2$ , much of the remaining  $^{14}\text{C}$ -label may also be eventually utilized in tissue synthesis. A conservative estimate of 50% contribution to protein synthesis therefore seems reasonable. Hence, at the uptake rate from 0.6  $\mu\text{M}$  and 6.0  $\mu\text{M}$  glycine, the amount of amino acid going into protein would be 3.1 ng and 14.4 ng larva $^{-1}$  day $^{-1}$ . Comparing this with the estimated daily rate of protein synthesis (Table VI) of 1.09  $\mu\text{g}$  multiplied by 14% = 152 ng larva $^{-1}$  day $^{-1}$ , the percentage contribution at the two concentrations tested would be 2.0% and 9.5%.

It will be noted that the contribution of absorbed glycine to total energy is distinctly less than that to growth as measured in terms of protein synthesis. This is to be expected since glycine has a very low caloric content (3.1 Kcal/g) compared with the main energy stores of protein (5.65 Kcal/g) and lipid (9.45 Kcal/g) characteristic of bivalve and other marine invertebrate larvae (Holland, 1978). Although the estimated contribution from amino acids at naturally occurring concentrations appears small, sea water also contains other organic compounds which are available for uptake (Williams, 1975; Wangersky, 1978). Marine invertebrates are capable of taking up these compounds from micromolar concentrations, and the evidence in favor of a significant role for this alternative nutritional pathway is now considerable (see review by Stephens, 1981). Furthermore, during periods when particulate food is scarce, this supplementary mode of nutrition may be vital for pelagic larvae which are frequently on critical energy budgets (Crisp, 1974).

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